593 in a military installation which keeps them away from their homes, they remain there, helping in the fields, or go out on the fishing boats, as [582] the case may be. If a son other than the first remains in the family after the age of marriage, it is generally for some physical or mental 591 disability. Under the normal operation of the family system, there is no time in a person's life in which he is not part of some family unit and living in the same house with his parents, an elder brother, or with a wife and his children, or with his grandchildren.

727 The war enforced many exceptions to this normal life cycle, as the 593 discussion of the previous table brought out: conscription and military service, deaths in battle or as a consequence of the campaign, widowhood and the orphaning of children. In the villages studied, the post-war situation was not disrupting family life further by the movement of younger unattached men to Naha or the larger towns, or by their separation from daily life while doing work for military camps. At least it was not sufficiently frequent to result in a deterioration of normal family life. 591 In these villages branch families were established for the most part in the village of the parent family. There are two reasons for this: first, the desire to remain near the parents and siblings, and second, [423] that the property which the father, or elder brother, has at his disposal is normally real property and land holdings in the village. Cash, which a [435] agricultural or fishing family might have at its disposal, would usually be insufficient at present prices for a second or succeeding son to be [425] given money to purchase land and a house site elsewhere. Occasionally a father sells land in the village to provide his son with money to purchase a house site and fields elsewhere, but this is not usual.

The mechanics of establishing a branch household may be illustrated from practices observed in each of the villages, though the procedure is essentially the same.

[361] Hanashiro is a settlement in the center of a cultivated area of dry field farming and rice paddies. The cultivated area begins on the outer rim of the village. The father, or the elder brother, gives a field (hatake in Japanese) to the son, or younger brother, if it is suitable for a house site. If the land owned is too far away--there are no [425] isolated homesteads--an effort is made to exchange with a neighbor, friend or relative, the far off property for a parcel closer in. If this is not possible, the remote piece is sold and the proceeds used to purchase a suitable plot in the residential area. If the family is too poor to [426] give money or land, an attempt may be made to borrow the money for purchase. If none of these arrangements is possible, the son may simply start out on his own, or less commonly, may live with his wife in the home of his parents, or delay his marriage. But it is uncommon for a second or succeeding son and his wife and children to live in the house of the parents or of the elder brother.

311 In this way, the residential area gradually replaces the cultivated 591 areas which surround it. One consequence of the establishment of branch families in agricultural villages is that it gradually decreases the

Goldschmidt then remarks that the peasant in the last years of his possession thought only of the parcel to come in the next allotment and did nothing for his land, and that in consequence its productivity fell. There was private ownership at that time only of newly reclaimed land or land filled in along the seashore, and this land went to the person who had done the work. The Japanese, when they abolished the system, divided land among families by number of members and since this time large holdings have not been created. Goldschmidt adds that "the land still suffers now from the consequences of this old system."[4] 175 423

To discover precisely the nature of the influences of the old system cannot be done with accuracy because of the destruction of local records, the vagueness of recollection among the old and of the inability to reconstruct old boundaries. What follows therefore is partly speculative, but nevertheless useful in suggesting the reasons for the present shapes and areas of individual land parcels. One of the striking aspects of the land maps of these areas is the odd and irregular shapes of land holdings. This is not true of all Okinawa. In some areas, plots on the hillsides are symmetrical, often rectangular or square. In the areas studied, there are plots of this sort, but also many that have very irregular shapes. 174 423 423

It is possible that after the abolition of the old system, some areas in the island were resurveyed, while others were not. Such surveys could have approximated the old areas but created a more regular rectangular pattern. In Hanashiro resurveying apparently was not done. The historical reasons for the present boundaries are not known because of decades of cultivation and because the land has not always been used for the same purposes. One of the large rice growing areas in Hanashiro is a recent development. The changes from paddy to dry crop land, or the reverse, seem to have followed the fluctuations in sugar and rice prices. It was quite probable that formerly the land was less level, that it was more heavily forested, and that odd shapes were due to the cultivated areas winding around large outcrops, patches of stony land, clumps of trees, uncultivated slopes which have now been reclaimed, leveled and cultivated. 174 423 311 [435]

Conditions like this are a commonplace in Okinawa today. Some of these boundaries also may be following the lines of old streams. Rivers, or more properly creeks, are not numerous in Okinawa and their presence is often hidden: a stream rising in a nearby mountain and ultimately going to the sea eight or ten miles away may be lost in a wide paddy area and trickle off again in its stream bed after several hundred feet of dispersion in the paddies. The boundaries may also 174 423 [133]

4 Goldschmidt, Richard. Neu-Japan. Berlin, 1927, 131. (My translation). The same criticism appears of the system in the middle east. See footnote 2 above.

243 by plowing.

There is water on the land when it is dug and harrowed, but it is not flooded. Not all rice land is harrowed. If it is not harrowed, the same result is accomplished by further hoeing. The harrow (magwa [407] in Japanese, maga in Okinawan) is partly a home made tool and looks like a large clumsily constructed rake. Essentially it is a piece of timber with a row of strong spikes. This timber ordinarily is made of pine, but other woods may be used. Twelve nails, spaced at about two inch intervals, are driven into the board. These nails or spikes, [414] about 8 sun (almost 10 inches long), square at the head, and with a [326] sharp point, are made by a blacksmith for about Yen 20 each. The [23] harrow is drawn by cattle; two shafts, with a yoke over the animal's [435] head complete the simple implement. The plow is used in the preparation of the field, but far more commonly, the work is done with a hoe.

In the fall and winter planting of rice, the seedlings remain in the seed bed for about 40 days. In the summer, the period is only 20 days and may be less. The winter shoots are from 7-8 inches long, the summer shoots from 4-7 inches. The length is important, for if the seedlings are too long, losses in transplanting will, according to Hanashiro farmers, increase to almost half. In rare instances, due to adverse conditions, seedlings in the seed bed reach 15-20 inches in length. The losses here are said to be considerable in transplanting.

[462] The hoeing or the plowing and harrowing of a field is almost exclusively done by men. It is tiring, uncomfortable, and heavy work. It is much more common to see women hoeing the dry crop land. But transplanting is done by men, women, and the older children. A handful of seedlings in the bed is pulled out and bound with straw, grass, or a rush. There is a knack in pulling these out. They must be jerked quickly, but dexterously to avoid root damage. The bundle is tossed either into a central place or into the paddy field to be planted, if it is adjoining. In the latter case, the bunches are tossed to various parts of the paddy.

243 804 The seedlings are generally set out in rows. For this purpose, a string with small markers like buttons (shirushi) is used. These are 7 sun (about 8.4 inches) apart. Both the rows and the hills are 7 sun apart. Differences between rows and hills may vary considerably. In these localities, the distances were generally the same. The string is stretched from one end of the row to the other. Each seedling is planted at the interval indicated by the marker on the string. This method of planting is not universal. When there is little time, the seedlings might be scatter planted.

243 804 413 Another method of obtaining the checker-board pattern is by means of a home made hexagonal frame, the waku (literally, a reel or a frame). Each of the six sides is divided into nine squares, 7 sun on the side. The overall length is over six feet. The frame is set along the outside border, or at any desired starting point. When in place, the

cash income. Pigs are seldom eaten by the family that raises them. On New Year's, a family will slaughter a pig or three or four families might co-operate in sharing one. Pork may also be served at O-Bon and at Jūgoya, the autumn equinoctial holiday season. 231 [262] [527]

A family often gets its start in pig raising by obtaining a loan from a mutual loan group. (These groups will be discussed later). A young pig may cost about Y2000. Male pigs intended for market (nikubuta in Japanese, shishiwa in Okinawan) are castrated two months after birth. Keeping breeding pigs (tanebuta) is a special business. Men engaged in this business bring the boar to the pig raiser's home. Each village has such a businessman or at least has convenient access to one in a neighboring village. The fee usually charged is Y200. If the first attempt at breeding is unsuccessful, a second opportunity is given free. On the third try, the dealer claims his fee again. In Matsuda, there is a belief among the old that as the tide is coming in, if a sow is in heat, the male will be able to perform, but that in the ebb tide he cannot. [426] [435] [232]

Great care is taken in housing pigs adequately, if the family is able to do so. The pig sties made of stone or coral may be better than the houses of their owners. This is by no means so shortsighted or ridiculous as it might seem. Pigs are the means, one of the very few means, by which an agricultural family may acquire substantial sums of cash. To protect this living bank account, considerable sums are invested in fine stone, or cement floors and an adequate roof. The pen must be strong to withstand typhoons. With a good pig pen, a sow, and a good litter, a family can look forward to improving its financial condition and its own housing. There is great variety in the quality of pig pens. The pen may be in combination with the outside toilet, but with the two places completely separate; it may be part of a larger shed which also houses the goats, the cattle, or the horse. If a family can afford it, the pig is housed in a stone pen with stone floors, or with other sturdy materials. 231 343 [434] [511]

The day to day care of pigs is mostly the work of women. While the husband is at work in the fields, the wife, as an incidental part of her duties, goes to the nearest plot to cut sweet potato tops, or mashes sweet potatoes in the stone mortar in the compound, often with her infant child on her back. There are three favorite varieties of food for pigs: (1) the leaves of the sweet potato plant not suitable for human consumption or not needed for transplanting, (2) the potato itself. The poorer grades of potato are put in a stone mortar and are smashed with a long pole, or pestle. (3) A cloudy liquid consisting of the sweet potato, waste bean curd (tōfu no kasshu) and water. This is always given warm. The pig may also get poor rice, or rice spoiled for human consumption by submersion as a result of a typhoon, or miscellaneous left overs from the table. 231 824 [462]

There are no ceremonies in any of the villages associated with slaughtering the pig. Villagers seldom kill their own except on 231

231 special holiday occasions. Pig killing or the killing of any animals
[825] is distasteful. The pig generally is driven out of the pen to a
[943] waiting truck or horse cart and hauled squealing off to market.

232 Considerable interest is being shown (early 1952) in the scientific
[177] breeding of pigs from stock imported from the United States. Chester White is a well known word among the farmers of Matsuda. In this area, regional meetings of pig breeders and raisers from the northern part of Okinawa and the Motobu peninsula are held to discuss the care, breeding, and marketing of pigs. These farmers have come a long way from the earlier days, even 25 years ago, when the toilet and the pig pen were the same. A farmer going from one of his fields to another often stops home to look at the pigs and perhaps to discuss his problems with
[474] a friend. In Matsuda, a pig growers' association has now been started.

231 Domestic animals, especially the pig, can be expected to increase and to reach at least their pre-war level, if the villages studied are typical. This development will be all to the good. The pig consumes food not fit or not used for human consumption. It does not compete with humans for food. It is unlikely that land now devoted to the production of human food would be diverted to animal food. In my observation, there is not a strong competition between animals and man for the products of the land. Domestic animals really round out the agriculture and consume food that otherwise would not be used.

[311] The lack of grazing land, except on the hill sides and summits, means that domestic animals must be fed with food grown and prepared and fed to them by the farmer. Grazing also would be out of the question since the land on the hills is privately owned and split up in small parcels. The young plants are valued too highly to permit indiscriminate grazing.

[435] Goats are cheaply raised. The only expense is the labor of getting leaves, grass, and tender shoots from the family's genya land on the hills. In the market, goat is the cheapest of all meats. There are also sharp differences in taste among villagers for goat's
[262] meat. The milk is not used as a food. Goats are tied up or kept in stalls for their entire life. They are never allowed to roam through the village or to graze on the hill sides. They are not given water and depend entirely on the water in the grasses and shoots which they are fed.

Horses, cattle, and oxen are fed grasses, mashed sweet potatoes,
[492] and waste bean curd. Though occasionally used in rice fields, the chief use of horses is in drayage. In Matsuda, the horse and the two wheeled cart make frequent trips to the mountains to transport the longpoles, firewood, and charcoal.

235 Chickens are fed anything that might be on hand. Often they
[262] are given the chaff from the rice or the rice that is blown off in winnowing. Occasionally chickens are eaten, but they are kept primarily

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226 most important.

226 (1) The sword or spearfish (kajiki in Japanese, akitaro in
136 Okinawan). This fish (some specimens reach 450 pounds) is caught
[227] from May through September. Fishermen go about 12 miles out for the catch. A wire leader 15 feet long with a hook is attached to a 1400 foot braided cord line about 3/16 of an inch in diameter. The line is gradually played out after the initial 700 feet are lowered. Swordfish fishing is done in the daytime. The fish is said to be scarce at night. The hook is about 2 1/2 inches long.
262 The swordfish is considered the most delicious of fish. It is ex-
[435] pensive, selling from Y50 to Y100 per kin (slightly over 1.3 pounds)
[432] depending on season and supply; consequently, fishermen sell rather than eat it, except in times of oversupply. Large fish are usually cut up before being sent to market; the small ones are sent whole. The swordfish is ordinarily eaten fresh. The favorite method of
[252] preparation is to fry it after dipping a slice in a batter of flour, dried milk and water. Occasionally it is eaten raw as sashimi. Dried swordfish is considered a delicacy. Unlike the shark, the fins (hane) are not dried.

226 (2) The tunny (subinoue in Japanese, subi in Okinawan). This
136 fish is caught between April and November. Here there are two ways
[221] of catching the fish, depending on the type of boat. If the large boat, the hatsudōki, is used a long line with as many as 200 hooks set 75 feet apart is used. At intervals of every three hooks, there are buoys with flags (hata). These flags, alternately white and red, are about the size of a large handkerchief. In another arrangement, the buoys may also alternate with the flags. The same line and wire leader used for the swordfish are employed with tunny catching, but the hook is smaller. When submerged the hooks are at various depths, their paths describing semi-circles from buoy to buoy. Lines may be pulled in from one to four times a day, depending on the biting. The bobbing of the buoys and the flags indicates the biting and the probable catch. A fishing party remains out for three days, leaving at five in the evening, returning about ten in the evening of the second day.

The small boats use two lines, the longer going down from the center of the boat, the shorter near one end. The method of catching the tunny is the same as that for the swordfish. In night fishing, the line might be lowered fifty feet, gradually playing out ten feet at a time. Tunny fishing is mostly a night catch. The line during night operations may be let out 700 feet, and, in the day 350 feet.

(3) The shark (fuka in Japanese). This fish is caught in the same way as the tunny. Fishing takes place both during the day and night. On the small boats, the line and its 15 foot leader with one hook, is about 840 feet long, and the entire length is let out.

(4) The mackerel (hishisaba). The main season for catching the mackerel is from March through May. These fish, usually weighing about 30 pounds, are caught by divers who seek the fish out while it is sleeping under stones. A strong line is tied around the tail and the fish is pulled up on board. There it is killed with a short

226
136 (9) The lobster, (ebi in Japanese, ibi in Okinawan). Catching the lobster is the work of young men, usually up to 24 years of age. A man over 35 may be too old for the hard work involved. Occasionally in summer older men engage in part time lobster catching. The fisherman secures a flashlight, covered with sheet rubber, around his left wrist with a strong rubber band. The rubber casing for the flashlight [220] is often an old bicycle inner tube. The light can be turned on or off without removing the tubing. In his right hand, the diver holds a hook (ebikake in Japanese, ibikakiya in Okinawan) over 25 inches long, which he uses to dislodge the lobsters from the rocks below. Often fishermen remain in the water for three hours, the period depending on the season, the potential catch, and on how cold the fisherman becomes. The diver wears only a pair of shorts. The lobster is a year round catch, though there are few in winter. The full moon is considered bad for lobster fishing. It is not known exactly how lobster were caught in the days before flashlights. Some old men said that nets were used.

[432] On a good day, one small boat with three or four men, can catch
[434] 150 pounds of lobster. It is not eaten frequently by the villagers, but sold to the large fishing co-operative association (Suisankumiai-rengokai). The hard and disagreeable work makes the lobster expensive. [435] At present the local market is sensitive to the tastes of the Americans in Okinawa. Weekly estimates of probable demand are furnished by the central office of the association to the local head of the fisherman's association, who in turn informs the fishermen. The lobster is considered a delicacy and is eaten only when there is a large catch and [262] the demand is low.

(10) The seabream (taisakana in Japanese, akamasu in Okinawan). The seabream is caught with a home made device shaped like a Y with [227] a top bar: Ŷ. The base of the Y has a loop for the hook and line. These wire devices are known as yamaguchi in Okinawan though the younger fishermen call it the saruican. The fish are caught by a series of these wire devices strung along a line with a sinker at the end. The success of the catch can be judged by lifting the line. An ordinary catch will bring fish on 3 out of the 5 hooks.

These are the main fish caught in this area. There are small catches of the bonito (katsuo), the dolphin or porpoise (iruka), and the shrimp (zakoebi), and a small octopus (tako). But these are rather infrequent. There are hundreds of other fish caught, especially of different smaller sardines (awaishi).

227 The wire devices used for catching the seabream can be used in varying sizes to catch many different types of fish. Some, such as the ones described, are used for the bonito, and very small ones are employed in catching sardines.

226 496 The boat, as in the previous example, is considered a person. The cook is usually a boy about 16 or 17 years old. If we further assume a catch valued at Y10,000, with a deduction of Y1000 for gas and oil, there is a remainder of Y9,000 to be divided. The boat's share, A, is 30%, or Y2700, with Y6300 for further distribution. The following formula is then applied to this remainder:

Captain	1.5 shares
Engineer	1.5 shares
Fishermen	7.0 shares, one for each of 7 men
Cook	0.7 shares
	10.7

The value of each share is Y588.78 (Y6300 divided by 10.7). If the amounts are rounded off, the final distribution is:

Captain	Y883	(1.5 x 588.78)
Engineer	883	(1.5 x 588.78)
Fishermen	4121	(1 x 588.78 x 7)
Cook	412	(0.7 x 588.78)
	Y6300	

The distribution takes place at the conclusion of a voyage. Obligations (giri) between the owner and the others, on these larger boats, are also based on custom. If a crew member is injured on a voyage and prevented from going on the next one, he receives a share for the voyage he was on, and some money, depending on the catch but not a full share, during convalescence. If a fisherman is ill and has been injured outside of his work, he does not receive this consideration.

5

Sale and Distribution of Fish

943 962 935 The sale and the distribution of fish is the work of women. Men occasionally do this, but their function is to catch the fish, maintain the boats and gear, and make the lures. The bulk of the fish is sold at Naha because the highest prices generally are paid there. This makes it difficult for adjacent villages to obtain fish, even in season. When the fish is especially plentiful and low in price at Naha, the women go to the agricultural villages of the interior. Fish are carried in baskets. The pre-war custom of carrying the fish basket on the head and walking from village to village, or to the railroad station at Kochinda, thence by rail to Naha, has given way to truck, bus, or the three wheeled cycle. Often in the evening, these cycles, which can seat six comfortably, are filled with eight or ten laughing and voluble women, and their fish, the vehicle chugging slowly and painfully up and then coasting down the grades.

000 One can infrequently observe women walking from Hinatogawa to

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512
821 A fishing village has a different kind of regularity than an agricultural village. Activities in both are determined by the weather. During a heavy rain, everyone is in his house. But the farmer, even with a dark angry sky, can work up to the storm, and often continues working in a mild rain. The fishing village is guided both by bad and anticipated bad weather. On a fine fishing day, the village seems deserted with the men gone, and the women in the homes. But several days of rain or unfavorable weather keep the men home, and the village is alive with other activities, such as repairing nets, boats, and houses. Much of the fisherman's work at sea is at night, either in the actual fishing or in going and coming.
[513] For this reason, there is considerable daytime sleeping among them. On off days, the young fishermen loll around, often finding it difficult to pass the time away.

9

Conclusion

226
184 Fishing has become the occupation of a few places, such as Itoman town, some villages on the Motobu peninsular, and Minatogawa. Ryukyuans have achieved considerable fame for their skill in fishing in waters other than their own, such as their drive-in net fishing in the East Indies and around Singapore.[3] Possibly it is the fewness of good ports, the necessity of adapting requirements to varying local geographical conditions, such as the coral reefs, or the long period of emigration that have prevented the large scale development of fishing on this island and insured the dominance of an agricultural life.

962 It is also a striking fact that, on this small island where no village is far from the sea, fish is an uncommon article of the diet. The explanation is simple. It is a problem of distribution in which two considerations are involved: the higher prices obtainable in Naha, [435] and the difficulties of preserving fish while distributing them through [251] the rural villages. More often than not, the fish in a farmer's diet [439] is the dried sardine or a canned fish from Japan, not the local catch.

Part 2

The Quarries of Minatogawa-Nagamo

1

Introduction

324 Minatogawa is famous throughout Okinawa for its stone. Stone from the village and its environs may be seen in many towns and villages [458] of the island. Before the war, there was a flourishing boat trade in wood and stone between Minatogawa and the northern region. The fine

3 For a recent statement, see Aquatic resources of the Ryukyu area, as cited, 7-9.

sandstone one sees in the new buildings of Naha often is from the quarries of this area. Stone quarries are scattered in various parts of Okinawa, but the Hinatogawa stone is considered the best.

Sandstone quarrying started, according to older settlers, about sixty years ago. Cutting began on the coast, gradually working up slope over rolling stony land. It is an interesting example of the transformation of a landscape by man. Now with the old methods still in use, the cutting has extended beyond the village. Stonecutting operations in the main are in the steep bluffs around both villages, although there are numerous cuttings in the newer settlements of Hinatogawa and along the seashore. Frequently the cut stone blocks lie near the temporary Hinatogawa tombs which dot the rocky coast. By the simplest methods, large quantities of stone have been and continue to be removed. All work is done by hand; machinery was installed by the Americans after the war, but it is out of working order and stands idle.

Before the war, stonecutting in this vicinity was a more thriving industry than now. Quarries are also found in neighboring Tamagusuku township and there is a distributing outlet in Horikawa, the village across the river. Before the war from 300-500 men are said to have engaged in stonecutting. Now there are about 120 in both villages. Many of these stone workers had come from other parts of Okinawa and the Ryukyus: men from the offshore islands, Ie-shima, the Kerama chain, and Iheya, and on the south east, from Kudaka, Tsuken, and Henza islands. Most of these settlers from the offshore islands have left. A few, born on Ie-shima, or from the northern district still remain.

Since the war coastwise shipping of lumber and firewood from the north and stone from the south had declined sharply. Trucks have largely displaced the boats. Transport costs are high and the stone is in demand in closer markets.

2

Acquiring and Working the Land

Customary practices govern the quarrying of stone. These eliminate the need for written agreements. Interested persons know the properties and the possibilities of each site. These customary practices are concerned with the acquisition, the working and the restoration of land. Techniques for working the stone have remained nearly the same for at least sixty years.

The stonecutter purchases rights to the stone, not the land itself. When the stone has been extracted, the land is returned to its owner. This is unimproved land, but after the stone has been quarried, a house may be built on the site. When a stonecutter (sekko) wishes to acquire a certain holding, he calls on the owner of the land. Following oral negotiations, the price is agreed upon. A good price

316 425 435 (1951-52) is from Y300-400 per tsubo (about four square yards), much higher than ordinary agricultural land. The price varies with supposed quality. The good judgment of the purchaser is necessary for success. He must estimate the quantity of stone, its depth, whether there may be cracks, fissures, or black streaks below, and the effect of underground water as he cuts down deeper. In a year, a good stonecutter can remove stone from about four tsubo of land. If he has extra capital, he may hire help.

316 472 The types of employment found are either the single operator or the small operator who has one or more employees. The industry is not notable for large capital outlays, or many employees of a single operator. A simple partnership is common. There may be some division of labor, with the owner of the rights doing all the cutting, while a friend or relative who does this as a secondary occupation assists in the removal of the stone and in loading it on a horse cart. The operator who has a piece of land too large to work by himself may hire someone. The employee (yatoi in Japanese, ninpu in Okinawan) is paid according to skill: Y100 a day for a beginning 17 or 18 year old boy, Y150 to the experienced, [965] and Y200 to the worker who can do all phases of the work quickly and skillfully.

[804] [461] [465] Much depends on the nature of the stone being worked. This varies by locality and with moisture content. It will require 8 hours for a man to cut a six shaku (about six feet) length of hard rock 1 shaku 2 sun (14.4 inches) deep, but he may be able to make three cuttings of moist or wet rock in the same period. Working time naturally varies with the strength and skill of the cutter. For this reason, piece work payment is common. The employee, however, may work unused portions of the holdings, receiving two-thirds of the value of the stone cut.

3

Tools and Types of Stone Cut

413 Six tools are used in cutting and extracting the sandstone: (1) the hichi (Okinawan). This tool, about six feet long, resembles a crow bar, but has a sharp chisel edge for cutting the stone. (2) A sharp hand axe (ono in Japanese, yuki in Okinawan) for chipping and finishing, (3) the ishiyuki, a smaller axe, used like the yuki, for chipping and finishing but principally in shaping pyramidal stones (kenchi). The tool is also used to knock off the rough edges of the stone, where it has been split, an operation often performed by old men. (4) The kusukacha (Okinawan). This reminds one of a small light golf iron. It has a handle four or five feet long with a metal strip attached at an angle to one end. It is used to rake off chippings and dust that accumulate in the groove while the cut is being made with the long chisel. (5) Wedges (iya in Okinawan), and (6) sledge hammers are used to split off the stone after the cut has been made.

316 Methods of working with these tools are very simple. The surface dirt is cleared away until the stone to be cut is visible and clean.

The truck or horsecart of the buyer comes to the stonecutting area, the blocks are loaded and taken away. Prior to sale, for convenience, stone may be taken from the cutting area. It is loaded on horse carts, the men carrying the heavy blocks by means of ropes looped around the ends of the stone and over poles which in turn rest on the shoulders. A six foot length (1 ken linear measure), one foot wide and about ten inches thick sells for ¥140 (1951-52).

Foot injuries are the chief hazards of this occupation. The toes may be accidentally cut by the long chisel, and there is danger of bruising or crushing by accidentally dropping the block, or by rolling when it is being dislodged. Very hard and calloused hands are the mark of the stonecutter; his hands are especially conspicuous for the hard, raised areas on the pals around the base of the fingers, the result of the constant lifting and pounding of the long chisel. There is also danger to the eyes in flying chips but few use glasses or goggles.

Like some phases of fishing, this work is for the young and the physically mature men. After the middle forties or early fifties, a man no longer does the heavy work and confines himself to lighter chores. The very old and the retired may chip and finish the foundation and the pyramidal stones.

If a cutter is unable to extract all the stone in a plot whose stone he has bought, there are also customary solutions. When the father dies, his son continues the workings and returns the field to the owner. If a stone worker moves to another village when only half the work has been done, he arranges for a friend, relative, or neighbor to take over the remaining part.

4

Restoring the Land

Formerly excavations (which might be 10 or 15 feet deep and the size of a large room) were refilled by the buyer of the stone rights. Rocks, pebbles, and miscellaneous trash were used as fill, but following the war there has been a heavy demand for rock and stone for road construction. As a consequence, many excavations are now only partly refilled. After refilling, houses are built on the sites of formerly excavated land. Here and there one can see sweet potatoes or vegetables growing on land which formerly was covered with stone. The original state of the land, its appearance after excavation and its restoration may be seen in Figure 2. Evidences of this reclamation may be seen throughout the stoneworking area.

Minatogawa, because it lacks vegetation for protective and decorative purposes, is a good example of the use and adaptation of stone to local needs. There are still stone fences, waist or shoulder height, and many small stone boundary lines, a foot or two and of uneven height. Coral stones, weathered by the sea, honeycombed and pocked, are seen everywhere.

1: Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

necessities of life. Fishermen are more accustomed to dealing in currency transactions and these are more frequent and freer than in the farming village. 434 511 184 [437]

The economic history of the average Okinawan agricultural village from the late 19th century when Japanese control became firm to the present is largely an account of the fluctuations in rice, sweet potato and sugar cane production. This history is difficult to reconstruct on a local level because of the destruction of records and inexact memories. The point is nevertheless worth making, if only to stress again that these villages are not isolated rural economies. The general experience seems to have been that crop acreages have contracted and expanded in response to local needs and to the demands of trade with Japan. 433 [439]

In the Hanashiro area, to use one example, there is a current interest in rice production because of its high value, and sugar cane seems to be displacing some sweet potato acreage. Sugar, even though coarse and unrefined, has a market in Japan strong enough to warrant production for the cash income at the expense of the cheap and plentiful sweet potato. 433 435

One of the most significant facts of economic life in these villages has been the maintenance of individual farms and crop variety. Plantation monoculture, subject to international price fluctuations and often conducive to local impoverishment, has not developed. 423 311

Private ownership in land, the inheritance of land within the family system, individual farms, tiny as they are, have undoubtedly been a stabilising influence on these village economies. 423 428

585 the day of the wedding ceremony, preparations are made at the
184 bride's home. Food is served for relatives and friends, and the party then proceeds to the groom's home for the ceremony.

[431] Gifts from the groom's family depend upon economic circumstances, but usually range from Y50 to Y100 up to Y1000. In Hanashiro, something, no matter how small, is always given by the groom's family to the bride's family. Since the war, gifts of chests of drawers and blankets are less common because of high prices.

On the third day, in this Hanashiro custom, the bride and the groom with relatives and friends visit the bride's parents during the day. On the same evening, the visit is returned by the bride's family.

585 There is a general agreement in all the villages that as a con-
178 sequence of the war, the preliminaries to marriage, the ceremony, the
727 gifts, and the events following the ceremony have become simpler.
435 Part of this is due to the high cost of food and entertainment. In the competition with other ceremonies and celebrations, the tendency has been, in the interest of economy, to simplify the old customs, or when this is not possible, to combine celebrations coming close together in the year. One frequently hears the word keizai (economy) used in this connection.

3

Contemporary Attitudes Toward Marriage

58 Marriage customs today are different from those of even 20 years
178 ago. From information collected from the villages, the chief changes in marriage customs have been: (1) the preliminaries and the ceremony have been simplified, (2) marriage takes place at a much older age, (3) marriages between individuals of different villages are more common, (4) there is a shorter engagement period and its significance has declined, (5) the custom in which the bride temporarily returns to her home has disappeared or become rare, (6) the go-between, formerly a respected elder negotiating a marriage, is now a friend, generally the same age as the principals, offering help and advice, and (7) the arranged marriage has given way to freer choice in marriage in which the parents' consent has become largely a formality.

581 Judging by the statements of residents of all villages, many of
582 whom were married under the old arrangement, there is almost universal approval of free choice in marriage. Divorces were said to have been [586] common under the old system, mainly because of the wife's barrenness or unattractiveness. The chances that the marriage will be a happy one are [562] thought to be greater under the new. Among women, it harmonizes with [177] ideas of equality which they have heard of or read about in Japanese magasines since the occupation.

1: Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

shopping trip to a larger town. In the very common evening visiting among men, women participate very little. 562

There has been some improvement in the social position of women since the war. In Hanashiro, for example, before the war, the husband, children, and grandparents ate in the second or third room, while the wife and sometimes the eldest daughter ate in the kitchen. (The Okinawan kitchen, though part of the house, differs from the other rooms in that it has direct access to the outside, is generally on a level with the ground, and has a dirt, cement, or stone floor). The wife in preparing the meal can go back and forth readily and need not take off her clogs or wash her feet if she goes barefoot when she goes up into the rooms. Her meal is a slight interlude between duties. 562 264 [342]

In most homes now, the women eat with the family in the main house. Some old women still spend most of their time in the kitchen watching the fire and eating their meals there. One of the reasons given for the change in attitude toward women is that many of the repatriated Okinawans brought newer ideas with them and did not practice segregation at meal times. [118]

Another important fact about social life is the drinking of the men and the abstinence of the women.[3] Young men usually begin drinking sake around the age of marriage. It is exceptional for a young man in his teens or early twenties to drink. But once this dividing line is passed, it is the exceptional man who does not drink. In each village one finds a few lifelong teetotalers. Drinking is always done in company, as the climax of a task completed, because of some happy turn of events, or because there is a party or celebration. As a general rule, the village men do not drink every day, but only when a suitable occasion arises. While there is drunkenness, I did not observe the solitary, prolonged drinking commonly associated with alcoholism in western societies. Prolonged drinking at night has the expected effects the next day, but there is very little remorse, unless a man has done something of which he is subsequently ashamed. Men who have drunk too much the night before do not hesitate to lie in bed 273 [562] [133]

[Text continues Top of p. 295--Analyst]

3 In Okinawa, the commonest and cheapest alcoholic drink is sake. This is not the same as Japanese sake, the light rice wine, slightly resembling sauterne, that is usually served warm or hot. Okinawan sake is awamori, a much stronger drink of distilled rice spirits, a variety of the Japanese shochu. The alcoholic content of awamori ranges from about 25% to 30%. It is a raw liquor with an unpleasant taste. It is not the favorite, but it is the cheapest drink. Awamori is made from rice in small distilleries throughout Okinawa, bottled in large jugs and distributed to village shops. Most shops carry it. Sometimes there are special sake shops. Awamori or sake is sold for about Y14 per go (.318 pint). The normal intake for an evening is considered to be 2 go. Most men are fairly inebriated after drinking this much. The American army canteen, when available, is the favorite sake container. Japanese and American beer and Japanese sake are liked, but too expensive. 279 435 804

358 children, whether in primary, junior, or senior high school, clean up the grounds and do repair and upkeep work. Young teachers, many [875] of whom are single, supervise the work, and often stay during the evening hours to plan the day's work or to study. Male teachers are night watchmen at the school, sleeping there in rotation.

346 The main problems of education are (1) adequate school buildings. Their condition reflects the haphazard tragedies of war. Schools vary in quality from place to place. The high school at Ginoza and the elementary school at Matsuda, for example, are excellent buildings; in other places, such as Gushichan village, the classroom buildings are little more than shanties with thatched roofs, and a siding of boards, [358] corrugated iron, or other materials at hand. At typhoon times, some of these are flattened, and it is normal to see school children helping [727] to clear the grounds and putting on new thatch. It is my impression generally that conditions are worse in southern Okinawa than in the northern area where war destruction was much less. The Civil Administration is well aware of these problems and the school construction program is, to all appearances, progressing. (2) Much the same situation [352] and for the same reasons, exists with regard to school equipment. Rickety chairs, old benches, bad blackboards contrast with the equipment of the new schools or of the old which escaped destruction.

875 (3) The post-war period has made a difference in the status of the school teacher (sensei). The destruction and disruption of the war, [727] scarcity, high prices and low salaries have made his position in most cases a precarious one. Before the war, the school teacher had prestige and money. Only the prestige remains. One high school principal esti- [465] mated that the post-war prices have increased 100 times, the teachers' salaries about fifty times. Immediately before the war, the starting [435] salary of a beginning teacher was Y45 a month. (The value of the pre-war Japanese yen was about US $0.27). A school principal received Y100 a month. Now the beginning salary for school teachers is about Y2200 and for principals Y5000. (The present value of the Okinawan yen is officially pegged at 120 to the dollar). Increases averaging about 30% went into effect in October 1951.

The school teacher has little or no money for clothing; his dress is the same nondescript combination of old civilian and army clothing that one sees on everyone else. This situation, serious in any country, is particularly so in a culture that has always regarded the teacher with such honor. The teaching profession is the source of many careers [555] in public office. Even in casual observation, one frequently finds that mayors, vice-mayors, former members of the Japanese civil service, started life as teachers.

The Okinawan teacher works hard and enthusiastically, but new attitudes are appearing which must be recognized. There is a desire to leave the profession, particularly noticeable in the male teachers under 30. Economic difficulties are reflected in frustration and discouragement. Okinawan school teachers, if the ones I knew are representative, have enthusiasm for ideas of democracy and freedom and for reforms that have

Land Ownership and Rental Although Nanahan has only twenty-three houses, the land register lists thirty-five land owners. Two of these are persons who are tenants and who own only the houselots where they live. In addition, three other families live in Nanahan, owning neither houselot nor land, but renting both from the owner. Five families have moved to urban areas, but have kept the land, and have rented it out, chiefly to the settlers in the community. Of the five, one had never owned a houselot. Two sold their houselots and one rented his house out. The remaining one rented his houselot, which was later converted by the tenant into a dry field. 423 427

There is almost no one in Nanahan who is neither a renter nor a rentee. Ten of the registered land owners are minors, most of whom have inherited land from their fathers who were killed in the invasion. Two are sons of the leading landowner, who has apparently registered part of his land in his sons' names to avoid heavy taxes.

The annual rent for grassland in Nanahan is ¥0.30, or thirty 'sen', per 'tsubo'. In the one 'genya' sale for which information was available, a doctor living in Kochinda village sold a Nanahan man 1,000 'tsubo' for a total of ¥3,000. Dry land, or 'hatake', rents for ¥2 per 'tsubo', although better and more fertile land may command a higher rental. Riceland is not rented out for money, but for a portion of the crop. Under the most usual arrangement the renter keeps three-fifths of the crop and delivers to the owner the remaining two-fifths. The renter must furnish all the manure, fertilizer, and labor. The Nanahan land register records nine plots as having been sold since 1947. 423 427 435

The Nanahan farmers say that the best thing the military ever did was to order in 1947 the making of a land survey and the drawing of land ownership maps. They said it is very effective in protecting boundaries and preventing quarrels. 423

3. Diet

Although daily Okinawan cuisine is in general very similar to that of Japan, some difference is seen in the dependence on the sweet potato, and the use of pork. Feast foods have more local flavor and are considerably different from those of Japan. The frequent typhoons occasionally cause temporary famine, and it is during the famines that Okinawan food and food substitutes differ most from Japanese standards. Finally, one major point of difference is in the use of sugar in the household; three centuries of experience with the crop has given rise to many traits and patterns centered around the use of sugar in the home. These four categories are discussed in this section on diet. 262 171 [263]

Ordinary Food The typical Okinawan breakfast is generally boiled sweet potatoes ('imo'), 'miso' (soybean paste) soup and vegetables. The noon meal is boiled sweet potatoes, noodles, and vegetables. The evening meal consists usually of boiled rice, 'miso' soup and vegetables. The most frequently consumed vegetables are mustard cabbage, Chinese cabbage, green onions, wax melon, giant radish, chopped dried radish, carrots and cabbage. Other foods added as occasional variety are wheat fluff, seaweed, soybean curd, and canned fish. 262

CHAPTER IV: RURAL ECONOMY

F. R. Pitts

1. Agricultural Buying, Selling and Labor

436
177 With the introduction of money economy in a more intensive form at the time of the Japanese assumption of control in Okinawa, the farmer gave up many of his oldtime practices and began to adopt through necessity more modern forms of exchange. Because his life remained essentially rural, these newer forms revolved mainly around goods and services connected with farming. Information used in the following discussion is based on notes taken in Nanahan, unless otherwise specified.

434 Sale of Farm Products and Livestock
438 Before the war the main cash crop was sugar cane, and the sale of black sugar provided almost the entire money income of a rural household. However, if additional money was needed in emergencies, enough dried soybeans were sold to alleviate the deficit. In the coastal areas of Kanegusku, Tomigusuku and Yonagusuku the sale of reed products supplemented the income derived from sugar.

Because of the decreased acreage of rice after about 1910, rice was not a major money crop. However, the postwar decrease in sugar cane acreage coupled with a rise in acreage planted to rice and vegetables have made both the latter more available as income-producers for the farmer. Farmers with a moderate amount of rice generally sell about half, but use the money thus obtained to buy cheaper but "less delicious" imported rice if they run short---and can afford rice.

In the autumn, women from villages near Naha go out into the countryside buying vegetables and taking them by bus or three-wheeled jitney to the urban market, or to establishments that buy them for resale to military dependents at approved stores. Cabbage, for instance, in late November brings [435] a premium price of ¥8 per 'kin' (1.32 pounds), but a month later the price declines to about ¥4-5 per 'kin'. One woman will carry away about 30 kin at a time.

Poor people and widows often sell cane to the local motor-powered mill, and obtain a little more money by helping to process it. Those who are fortunate enough to afford to do the pressing and processing at a horsedrawn sweep sell directly to the Agricultural Federation, or Noren, in Naha. For a [435] one-hundred kin barrel they received in 1954 initially ¥1,100 a barrel. Later on, depending upon the grade of the black sugar delivered, they were to re- [435] ceive more. The scale of grade-prices in 1954, as given by one farmer, was: first grade---¥1,530; second grade---¥1,430; and third grade---¥1,330. Before the war each barrel contained 120 kin, but the postwar barrels are smaller and correspondingly more easy to handle. The black sugar of Okinawa sells at a [439] premium in Japan to candy manufacturers, who prefer it to white sugar. This accounts in part for the reluctence on the part of some farmers to sell to the modern sugar mill in Haebaru-son, which chiefly makes white granulated sugar.

Although animals are generally bought for prices that the community considers as relatively fixed (see below), meat animals sell for a certain rate per unit weight that varies with the market. Old cows and bullocks are generally sold for meat at the rate of ¥60 per kin. Boars, if fat, are sold for ¥42 per kin. Male goats bring ¥20 per kin for eating purposes, and chickens bring about ¥200 per kin. Females of any animals are very seldom sold unless old and almost dying, or unless the farmer finds himself in dire monetary emergency. Nanahan, which has the greatest vegetable acreage in Tomoyose village, has a 'han'-wide agreement not to raise chickens, due to their possible destruction of young plants. 435

Buying of Livestock and Daily Necessities The war depleted most of the livestock of Okinawa, and recovery has been slow. Okinawan farmers frequently expressed their gratitude to the American religious organizations which sent goats to them to help in reconstruction. 727 231 [177]

The reversion of Amami indirectly helped to increase the livestock on Okinawa. A Nanahan farmer described the situation in late November of 1953: 439 231

> Horses, cows, goats and pigs, together with household furniture come into Tomari port from Amami every day. The Amamians want to get as much Okinawan yen as possible, because it will convert to Japanese yen at three to one, and they think they will be ahead. The accelerated cattle movement started right after reversion intentions were announced. We are very glad to be able to buy the animals, but important people on Amami are afraid that this movement will deplete the island of animals, especially stud horses and bulls, goats and pigs for breeding.

Nanahan farmers have relatively fixed ideas on the prices of livestock. For middle grade, or average, stock the following prices are quoted: horses, ¥13,000; cows, ¥25,000; heifers, ¥10-11,000; calves ¥9-10,000; boars, ¥2,500; sows, ¥2,700; and all goats, ¥300-400. 435

Before the war there were many people traveling through the countryside selling 'miso' paste and bean curd. Every other day such peddlers would visit even the most isolated settlements. Better roads and increased communications by bus and jitney have oriented purchase of staples urbanward. The only peddlers who now come through Nanahan are basket peddlers. Two small stores in the main settlement provide 'sake', noodles, matches and other small-cost items that are not worth a trip to town. 438 178 443

Sale of Services Farm labor is drawn from the southern islands and from poorer families who are just getting a start in the community. In Nanahan there was only one full-time farm laborer, who was paid ¥2,000 a month, in addition to room and board. He had left Miyako when eighteen, two years before, because of a famine that was being caused by a sweet-potato virus. His employer was a man who managed a good deal of land---indeed the land that belonged to himself and two minor relatives---and sorely needed the extra labor. Another landowner was converting dry land to paddy, and after 464 [465]

464 the bulldozer had done the basic shaping of the field, a new member of the
[465] 'han' was hired to finish the pounding of the paddy walls. He was paid ¥900 for six days' work, and was required to provide his own lunch. His employer had spent the first year after the war in Hokkaido, working for no money but receiving one 'shō' (3.18 pints) of rice a day. Later he rented a horse and cart from its owner at ¥60 a day and pocketed anything above that amount that he earned. During planting and harvest season he worked in the rice fields.

445 Horses are rented out by their owners to other people, but when a cow
426 is rented the owner's services are always included. No farmer trusts anyone
435 else with his cow. A man-and-cow hire out for ¥250-300 a day, depending on
379 the distance they must travel. A horse is most often rented to pull the sweep
299 of a rotary sugar-press, and is paid according to the amount of juice of black sugar produced. Various prices are quoted. ¥100 is paid for each 'chō' (100 kin, or 132 pounds) of black sugar produced. One farmer charges for the use of his horse a flat rate of ¥1 for each gallon of juice squeezed. Another charges ¥60 for 50 gallons of juice if the renter lives in Nanahan or close by, and ¥70 if he lives farther away. Horses were scarce the first year after the war, and fifteen men together pulled the sweeps of the rotary presses.

464 Buying of Labor and Services Many times farmers have need of a great amount
575 of labor in a short period of time. Then they are most likely to call upon the services of the young people's group, the 'seinendan'. One Nanahan farmer in 1952 had this group make a paddy field for him from a dry field. In 1953 another farmer had the group make a 300 'tsubo' dry field for him out of 'arechi', or war-destroyed land. The 'seinendan' also hires its members out to work for people who need help in the busy season. The following daily wage rates were quotes: women and new [465] members, ¥40; men of 18 and 19 years, ¥50; and men of 20 years and above, ¥60.

445 Abolition of the stringent Japanese regulations compelling farmers
[448] to raise sugar has resulted in the reconversion of many sugar fields to rice paddies. At first this was done exclusively by hand labor, but now bull-
[433] dozers are more in favor. One farmer had 420 'tsubo' of dry land converted into paddy at a total cost for bulldozer leveling of ¥6,300. The rate for machine and operator was ¥600 an hour. The farmer owns 450 tsubo more of
[262] paddy, which provides rice for one meal a day. With this newly-converted field he plans to have his family eat rice twice daily. Labor charges for finishing the new paddy will run about ¥4,000, according to estimate.

One of his relatives is a repatriate from the hemp-growing colony at Davao, in the Philippines. This man bought land from a villager who was dissatisfied with country life, and hired a bulldozer to convert it to paddy.
[435] For conversion of 816 tsubo he paid bulldozer charges of ¥12,000 and ¥8,000 additional for labor. He had bought the dry land ('hatake') originally for ¥65 per tsubo.

About the only other service regularly engaged is the hulling and polishing of rice. Nanahan people take their threshed rice to a neighboring village where there is a 'seimaisho' (rice-cleaning mill), and pay only cash for the service. They return home with the polished rice and the bran, or

war level. This is due to several factors. The local prices for reed products are said to be too low, and access to Japanese markets is difficult today due to the separation of Okinawa and Japan. Since the war local food shortages and changed tastes and diet have influenced change to greater rice production. Many houses in Kanegusuku lost their mat-weaving looms during the war, depriving them of this means of support. In addition, there is some feeling that it is too time-consuming and the young girls do not like it. 286 433 178

One tsubo produces about two bundles of reed, which is worth about ¥10 a bundle when dried. Usually the reed is not sold, but is made by the producer's family into mats. Two bundles of reeds make one 'goza' mat, which sells for ¥65-100 in Naha. One person can make about two of these mats in one day. However, in almost all families this is part-time work, the woman of the house weaving in her spare time. One family in the village fortunate enough to own two looms employs two village girls full time as long as a supply of reeds is available. 286 433 [435] [464]

The covering for the 'tatami' mat is called 'tatami omote'. An individual can make about six of these per day. They are faster-made than 'goza' because the ends do not have to be tied off and bordered. These sell for about ¥45 in Naha, which place people prefer to Itoman as a market for their reed products. However, rice straw to be used in the base of 'tatami' is sold in Itoman because the cost of transporting the bulky straw to Naha would be prohibitive---it is sold for only ¥1 or ¥2 per bundle. The Agricultural Cooperative is trying to arrange for the sale of 'tatami omote' in Kagoshima where ¥85 per mat can be obtained. The first such postwar collection and sale was made early in 1954. 286 433 435

Prewar Home Industry in Yamada Before the war people in Yamada made much of their own clothing, and were self-sufficient in most of the tools they used. Most of the clothing was made by the women of the village themselves. Most women wove, and many wove constantly when not in the fields. Many had their own looms, but those who did not borrowed looms from their neighbors. 294 [286]

The usual summer garment was a kimono of banana-fiber cloth and the usual winter garment one of cotton. The former was made wholly at home, from the tree to the finished garment. For the cotton kimono the threads were purchased, usually at Kadena, already dyed, and the cloth woven at home. [291]

Several families had silkworms. They got the eggs from Japan and fed the worms on mulberry leaves they grew in their yards. These women spun and wove at home but they sometimes had professional dyers at Kadena or Naha dye the threads for them. Silk garments, like store-bought garments, were only for grand occasions. 231 283 292

Before the war some Yamada women made "panama" hats in their homes as piecework for a hat company. The company furnished the materials and bought the finished product. This was one of the few sources of cash available outside the sugar crop. Baskets, carrying bags, and raincapes made of 294 [434]

Education The Japanese established the first schools in the rural areas some time before World War I. Great emphasis was placed on making Japanese speakers and nationals out of Okinawans. Today most of the population is bilingual; those who speak only a dialect of the Ryukyuan language are persons over sixty and pre-school children. Most Okinawans have come to regard themselves as Japanese. 871 177 [191] [829]

A major change in the postwar educational system has been the addition of three years to the period of compulsory schooling, making a total of nine years. Since the schools continue to provide a Japanese education, the effect will be to increase the Japanization of Okinawa, raise literacy, and ultimately make all speakers bilingual. As a student is usually excused from all work by the family, this measure has served to withhold a large number of teenagers from the labor market.

In the rural areas the author heard frequent praise for the extension of the schooling period and the new school construction program initiated by the military government. Most rural peoples stated that educational opportunities were poor for them in the prewar period; high school education was said to be particularly difficult for a village child to achieve. Now they feel that they are realizing equality with the urban areas. The urbanite is more likely to suggest that the quality of education has deteriorated in the postwar period. Both rural and urban people were agreed that one decided improvement has been that students no longer fight among themselves. Before and during the war all students were organized into small groups based on area of residence; each group was headed by a student leader who shepherded his charges to and from school in semi-military formation. Rivalry between these organized groups frequently led to gang fighting so severe that the intervention of teachers or police was often necessary to restore order. 871 369 178 877 178

Rural people regard education as providing one of the best opportunities for improving one's status; consequently, the improvement of educational opportunities will have far-reaching effects on social mobility. Those who acquire a high school or university education rarely remain in the village, and the few who do remain adopt an occupation other than farming. 871 554

Economy Money was virtually non-existent in the old Okinawan village; barter was the chief means of exchange. Taxes under the communal land holding system were paid in grain and cloth. The land reforms initiated by the Japanese brought the introduction of tax payments in cash. Increasing emphasis on sugar production due to governmental encouragement and subsidy did much to destroy the self-sufficiency of the village and brought dependence on a cash crop. The period of Japanese administration was marked by a gradual adoption of a money economy in the rural areas. 437 436 178 177

Okinawans state that there is a far greater amount of money in the village today than in the prewar period. Some assert that due to governmental price controls they were never able to realize a fair return for their products (chiefly sugar) in the prewar era, but the great increase in money in recent years seems largely attributable to factors relating to the military occupation. Today over twenty-five percent of the total labor force is employed by the military and in subsidiary occupations such as construction; this steep rise in 434 178 [435] [464]